

Perceptions of Climate Change and Adaptation of Climate-Smart Technology by the Paddy Farmers: A Case Study of Kandy District in Sri Lanka

W. A. D. P. Wanigasundera, P. C. B. Alahakoon

Abstract—Kandy district in Sri Lanka, has small scale and rain-fed paddy farming, and highly vulnerable to climate change. In this study, the status of climate change was assessed using meteorological data and compared with the perceptions of paddy farming community. Factors affecting the adaptation to the climate smart farming were also assessed.

Meteorological data for 33 years were collected and the changes over time compared with the perceptions of farmers. The temperature, rainfall and number of rainy days have increased in both locations. The onset of rains also has shifted. The perceptions of the majority of the farmers were in line with the actual changes. The knowledge and attitudes about the causes of climate change and adaptation were medium and related to level of adoption. Formulating effective communication strategies, and a collaborative approach involving state, private sector, civil society to make Sri Lankan agriculture 'climate-smart' is urgently needed.

Keywords—Adaptation of climate-smart technology, climate change, perception, rain-fed paddy.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

GLOBAL climate change is the most serious threat faced by the contemporary society. Anthropogenic climate change presents very significant risks to ecosystems and human societies [1]. Water scarcity resulting from climate change has been forecast to significantly reduce crop productivity, lead to unsustainable irrigation practices such as over-exploitation of aquifers, and to water quality issues resulting from seawater intrusion [2]. In Asia, less predictable rainfall patterns including changes in the timing and volumes of monsoonal rainfall and changes in river flows constitute the ominous threats. Many of these unprecedented changes of weather patterns impose a substantial challenge to agriculture in many tropical countries and expected to be amplified with time at an increasing rate [3].

Agriculture systems world over contribute substantially to the greenhouse gas emissions [4]. As a small island and also as a developing country, Sri Lanka's contribution for the global green house gas emissions is minimal, yet the vulnerability to the consequences of the climate change is high

in Sri Lanka. In developing countries there are many more areas other than the environment that are vulnerable to the direct and indirect effects of climate change [5]. According to South Asia Watch on Trade, Economics and Environment [6], rice cultivated in most South Asian countries show a gradual stagnation in production levels mainly caused by the changes in temperature regimes. In Sri Lanka, the paddy farming is one of the most vulnerable sectors from the effects of climate change, in terms of both quality and quantity [7]. According to estimates by the Climate Change Secretariat of Sri Lanka [8], vulnerability of irrigation to increases in drought is widespread in the island. The rain-fed paddy fields in most parts of the island, especially in the drier districts are the most seriously threatened.

There are two approaches to address the climate change issues in agriculture. In the long run, mitigation is necessary by reducing the level of global green house gases. On the other hand, it is urgent for the livelihoods of farming communities to adapt to the escalating climate change. The Global Science Conference on Climate-Smart Agriculture [9] resolved to promote 'climate-smart' agriculture as a response to the challenges of food security, poverty eradication, and climate change adaptation and impact mitigation in the context of a growing world population. Climate-smart agriculture involves the production of food crops, livestock and bio-fuels using low-carbon technologies based on reduced energy and water usage [10], as well as adopting drought or flood resistant varieties and changing management practices. A good deal of effective climate-smart practices could be found in many developing country agricultural systems. Many of these techniques used in climate-smart agriculture are based on proven techniques, such as mulching, intercropping, integrated pest and disease management, conservation agriculture and weather forecasting [11].

The timely behavior changes of the paddy farmers are essential for the successful adaptation to the climate change in the paddy sector. It is essential to develop effective mechanisms to share the research findings and resultant technologies on climate change adaptation with the paddy farmers, for their successful implementation. Paddy farmers operating under rain fed conditions are worse off due to changing climate, and hence, their knowledge, perceptions and attitudes are very important psychological factors that are influencing the adaptation of climate-smart farming systems.

This paper first attempts to explore the various efforts made by scientists and communicators to bring out the core issues

W.A.D.P. Wanigasundera is with the Institute of Social Sciences (ICS) of University of Minho, Portugal, as a research scholar, on sabbatical leave from University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka (corresponding author phone: 0094812395524; e-mail: dpwanige@pdn.ac.lk; wanigasundera@gmail.com).

P.C.B. Alahakoon is with British College of Applied Studies, Kandy Campus, Sri Lanka.

related to climate change in Sri Lanka and tropical Asia, and to highlight how the perceptions of farmers on the causes and effects of climate change are comparable with the corresponding real scientific facts. We start by discussing the research reported in several countries and international forums explaining the realities of climate change and their effects on crop farming. This is followed by a presentation of empirical studies undertaken related to the climate change and its perceptions by the Sri Lankan farming communities. A special case study is then presented on the major outcomes of the empirical investigations undertaken on the climate change data and their consistencies with the perceptions of two selected communities representing the mid country wet and semi-dry zone of Sri Lanka. The demographic characteristics, knowledge, attitudes and level of adaptations of climate-smart technologies by these farmers are also discussed in an attempt to identify the major factors affecting the adaptation of relevant climate-smart technologies. Finally, the paper offers some recommendations on how to promote climate-smart paddy farming technologies.

B. Present Status of Climate Change in Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka, which is an island state, is vulnerable to all identified impacts of climate change such as rise in land and sea surface temperature, sea level raising changes and the amount and pattern of precipitation. Sri Lanka has experienced a wide range of parameters of climate change such as a rise in temperature of 0.01–0.03°C per year, an increase in maximum and minimum temperature, a decrease in rainfall, increased intensity of rains, delays in on-set of monsoonal rainfall, erosion in coastal belt, landslides, and an increased frequency of extreme weather events, such as floods and droughts [12]. Analysis of long-term air temperature data has provided strong evidence that significant and systematic warming of the atmosphere has occurred in all climatic zones of Sri Lanka [13]. The rate of increase in temperature from 1961 to 1990 is 0.016°C per year [14], while the global average for the period 1956-2005 is 0.013°C per year [15], indicating a faster warming trend in the recent years in Sri Lanka. Mean (annual and seasonal) daytime maximum and mean (annual and seasonal) nighttime minimum air temperatures have both increased during the period 1960-2001 [16], [17]. The mean annual rainfall of the country has decreased by 144mm (7%) during the period 1961-1990 compared to the period 1931-1960 [18], [19].

The total annual rainfall in different parts of the country has shown different changing trends. In the Jaffna, Potuvil and Mullaitivu the rainfall has recorded an increase, while it has declined in all the other stations throughout the country [20]. In terms of the number of rainy days, except the Nuwara Eliya station, all the other stations recorded declining trends. An increase in the number of consecutive dry days and a reduction in the number of consecutive wet days have been reported [21]. Analysis of monthly and annual rainfall data from 1950 to 1989 has showed that the *El Niño* phenomenon reduced rainfall during the following year in all locations [13].

The intensity and frequency of extreme climate events (floods and droughts) have increased in recent times triggering an increase in natural disasters [21], [22].

C. Impacts of Climate Change on Paddy Cultivation in Asia

Available projections in Sri Lanka [24] have indicated that climate change impacts can be significant in the dry zone, especially in the Northeast and the East, where some of the agriculturally intensive areas are located and are already experiencing water stress. The expected changes may lead to an increase in the *Maha* (main paddy season during North east monsoon) irrigation water requirement for paddy by 13-23% by 2050 compared to that of 1961-1990 period. Further, the observed and projected reduction in rainfall in the central highlands is likely to create conflicts between irrigation water supply and hydropower generation from the multipurpose Mahaweli scheme.

Scientists working on the impacts of climate change on the paddy growth have confirmed that an increase in spikelet sterility with increased spikelet temperature above 31-32°C and suggests that the impact of climate change on pollen sterility in rice should be a common occurrence in high temperature sub humid eco systems [24]. They have further said that the impact of climate change would be more on quality than the productivity of rice produced in the sub humid tropics. It has also been reported that the grain yield of paddy declined by 10% for each 1°C increase in growing-season minimum temperature in the dry season, whereas the effect of maximum temperature on crop yield was insignificant [25].

Although the total grain dry matter increased with elevated CO₂ by 69.6% in ambient temperature, the total grain dry matter has decreased with elevated temperature by 33.8% due to warming-induced floral sterility [26]. The same experiment has also shown that projected warming is likely to induce a significant reduction in grain yield of rice by inhibiting DM (*i.e.*, photosynthates) allocation to grain, though this may partially be mitigated by elevated CO₂. Similar results have been shown in [27], indicating that, for both dry and wet seasons, a beneficial increase in growth and yield with elevated CO₂ is possible for irrigated rice grown in a tropical environment. In addition, increases in CO₂ and/or temperature may also reduce protein content and overall nutritional quality.

According to a study carried out in Sri Lanka [28], rice under elevated CO₂ showed significantly greater (20% and 11% in the two seasons) radiation use efficiency (RUE) relative to ambient CO₂. Also the number of grains initiated and percentage of grains filled were significantly greater under elevated CO₂ resulting in final seed yields being 24% and 39% greater than the ambient. They have concluded that rice yields respond positively to increasing CO₂ even at the higher range of growing temperatures. Another study, the leaf net photosynthetic rate under elevated CO₂ had increased by 22–75 % in comparison to the ambient [29]. Further, it has shown that the leaf chlorophyll content increased significantly under elevated CO₂.

D.Climate Change Adaptation

According to Inter-governmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) [30], climate change adaptation is the initiatives and measures to reduce the vulnerability of natural and human systems against actual or expected climate change effects. Adaptations can be classified on the basis of adaptive responses to climate change, such as reactive (measures which are made by institutions, individuals, animals and plants as response) or anticipatory (carried out as preparations against potential effects), autonomous (adjustments which are occurring naturally or spontaneously as response) or planned (adaptations need conscious intervention) [31].

There are several major barriers to implementing climate change adaptation, such as environmental, economic, informational, social, attitudinal and behavioral constraints [24]. The IPCC has further recognized that there are significant knowledge and information gaps for adaptation as well as impediments to flows of knowledge and information relevant for adaptation decisions. The psychological and cognitive processes involved in different types of climate change adaptation have received attention of the researchers. The Food and Agricultural Organization has highlighted some important options for increasing the adaptive capacity of farming communities who face severe threats due to changing climate [33: 78]:

- “Bear the loss – accept reductions in area or productivity.
- Share the loss – distribute the impacts of reduced water resources to share reductions in area and productivity.
- Modify the threat – at an individual level, expand farm size and benefit from economies of scale; improve water use efficiency through better technology and management.
- Prevent the effects – for example increase water and input use.
- Change use – crop change, land-use change, mix of rain-fed and irrigated production.
- Research to find adaptations – improve crop productivity in higher temperatures and with greater moisture stress.
- Educate for behavioral change”.

A study on the adaptation of paddy cultivation in the South Asian countries has identified a range of adaptive options such as; adjusting then planting dates, use of traditional varieties, site-specific nutrient management, alteration of farm management practices e.g. System of Rice Intensification (SRI), crop rotation, and Integrated Pest Management [34]. The rice farming methods such as intermittent irrigation, zero-tillage, use of bio-chars, and deep placement of urea, also would help mitigate the Green House Gas emissions from rice fields.

Harvesting rainwater and storage during higher rainfall seasons, especially in the dry and intermediate zones, is a viable adaptation option for utilizing available water resources throughout the year [23]. Wastewater reuse, increasing water use efficiency and change of allocation practices are some other adaptation options suggested. The provisions of rainwater harvesting systems to all households in drought-

prone areas, and making it a prerequisite to receive drought relief are also suggested [35]. Renovating the existing tanks to store excess rainfall during the monsoons and devising methods to store and transfer excess rainfall in the wet zone to the dry zone would be some other available alternatives suggested.

There are number of new adaptive strategies available at the research level. The Rice Research and Development Institute (RRDI) of Sri Lanka has involved in developing technologies and appropriate rice varieties which respond positively to increased air temperature and humidity, increased atmospheric CO₂, moisture stress, increased salinity and, submergence. Short-term (low water consuming) rice varieties suitable for shorter growing seasons have already been developed and tested. Investigating the impact of increased temperatures, humidity and moisture stress on crops also had been suggested [23]. There is evidence that the dry zone farmers in the North-central province of Sri Lanka have adopted several short-term and long-term adaptive strategies related to crop rotation, adjusting planting time, changing over to short period crops and varieties and rainwater harvesting techniques [36].

It has been suggested to adapt broader scale changes such as partial shifting of present locations to areas projected to receive more beneficial rainfall, changing the planting time to suit altered rainfall onset times [37] and, crop diversification and shifting from rice to other field crops too are adaption strategies that would help the farmers [23]. It has been shown that under the elevated CO₂, the rice grain yield could be maximized by supplying sufficient Nitrogen fertilizer [26].

E.Perceptions, Knowledge and Attitudes of Paddy Farmers on Climate Change

Generally, people's understandings of climate change underlie their willingness to act, and to support public policies, in response to it. Achieving an appropriate understanding of climate change is difficult. The effects of climate change are uncertain and are place-specific due to geographic differences as well as differences in resources available for adaptation [38]. Creating the accurate understanding among the stakeholders of the scientific, political and economic complexity of climate change is highly challenging for communication [39].

Several studies undertaken so far in different parts of the world have revealed that the diverse national publics have not perceived these complex issues of climate change accurately, despite a growing trend to pay an increased attention by the mass media [40]-[44]. There is a serious lack of up-to-date studies, but the existing knowledge base provides evidence that especially in developing countries, many of which are likely to be severely affected, people are not sufficiently aware of the dangers and causes of climate change [45].

A study on farmers' adaptations to climate change in Limpopo River Basin of South Africa has shown that the farmers' perceptions of climatic variability were in line with climatic data records [46]. Although the farmers studied are well aware of climatic changes, only about 30 % have adjusted their farming practices to account for the impacts of climate

change. The perceptions of local people on climate variability in the Mid-Mountain Region of Nepal were found to be in line with climatic data records [47]. However, in rural mid-hills of Chepang community in Nepal, only one-third of the respondents were able to perceive the changes in line with the recorded data [48]. They also found that access to information, and extension services are the most important factors facilitating climate change perceptions, while the formal education and engagement in non-farm income sources reduce the ability to perceive the climatic changes. There is widespread climate change in the Himalayas, where the farming communities of different altitudes vary in their level of climate change perceptions [49]. The traditional communities in Tibetan mountainous villages have perceived the causes of climate change as both material and spiritual phenomena [50]. This study has also shown that the majority of perceived spiritual reasons were linked to human misconduct, while some were morally neutral and more fatalistic, thus showing the lack of scientific awareness. Similar observations have been made in a survey conducted among arable crop farmers in Western Nigeria as: "Respondents (95%) were convinced that the vagaries of the climate are a sign of divine anger as there are many sinners in our midst and God is trying to punish us; like floods, with serious consequences" [51: 09].

A study on the climate change perceptions of apple farmers in Western Himalayas has shown that of climate change is perceived by knowledge of crop-climate interaction and by differential outcomes of apples associated with the changed conditions [52]. Having reviewed 19 empirical studies that evaluated the conservation impact of popular participation in forest management, a study has concluded that based on the local ecological knowledge people can assess changes in their environment. They also recommend refinement and validation of perception-based participatory methods in order to use them under diverse field conditions [53].

A comparative study about the farmer perception and adaptation to climate change of home gardening farmers in Sri Lanka, India and Bangladesh [54] has revealed that the respondents from three dry zone villages in Sri Lanka only 6.1% perceived both temperature and rainfall changes correctly, even though 53.4% and 21.6% correctly perceived the changes in environmental temperatures the amount of rainfall respectively. In the case of Bangladesh, none of the respondents have correctly perceived the changes observed in temperatures and rainfall. In the case of India too, no respondent has perceived that the onset of rainfall has changed over the period, although the actual data clearly show such an event in the recent past.

Another public perception survey conducted in all major climatic regions in Sri Lanka has shown that majority of the public have perceived changes in the climate *i.e.* increased rainfall intensity (60%), change of rainfall pattern (70%), increase in the dry season (63%), and increased air temperature (80%). However, the majority (58%) of the respondents were unaware of the concept of global climate change [55].

An examination of the perception of the paddy farmers and adjustment of their farm management practices, in the dry zone of Sri Lanka has revealed that during the last few decades, the pattern of rainfall has significantly changed and the farmers have observed the changes in the climate affecting their livelihood [56]. The increase in average temperature combined with decreased rainfall has forced them to change their traditional paddy farming to shifting (*Chena*) cultivation. The farmers in the low country intermediate zone of Ratnapura district in Sri Lanka have perceived that the length of dry spells and the temperature have increased in the area [57].

Although some research has been done on the farmers' perception, as well as adaptation related to climate change of the small scale rain-fed paddy farming communities in the dry zone of Sri Lanka, very little is known about the perceptions of the paddy farmers in the mid elevation districts in Sri Lanka. Therefore, an empirical investigation was conducted with the objectives of: Assessing the status of climate change and the perceptions of paddy farming community in the mid country wet and intermediate zones. The actual meteorological data from the selected locations were analyzed to find out the pattern of changes in rainfall and temperature, and compared with the perceived changes of the farmers. The knowledge and attitudes of the farmers towards the causes and effects of climate change on paddy cultivation was also measured.

From the foregoing discussion it is clear that the climate change is one the most difficult to understand phenomena faced by the farming communities today. Effective interventions for adapting to climate change require changes in the attitudes and behaviors of a large majority of farming population. In order to achieve these complementary changes in organization, which provide education, incentives, and institutional support are necessary. Farming communities are finding it increasingly difficult to adapt climate-smart technologies as they are often excluded from the policy process by those in power and authority, who often used to manipulate the policy process for their political or economic benefits [58]. In the light of such a complex scenario it is very important to understand both scientific and psycho-social issues related to major agricultural systems so that the timely interventions to mitigate and adapt to the realities of climate change by all the stakeholders.

II. METHODOLOGY OF THE CASE STUDY

A. Study Area

Kandy district (Located in North Latitude 60.56° to 70.29° and East Longitude 80.25° to 80.00°), which is covering both the wet and intermediate climatic zones of the mid country was selected for the study. The elevation of the Kandy city is 465 meters above mean sea level and the annual rainfall is 1840 mm and the mean temperature varies between $20-22^{\circ}\text{C}$, while the humidity varies from 70% to 79%. Of the total land area of 1940km^2 of the Kandy district 8.5% is cultivated in paddy, mostly under rain-fed condition, except the Minipe

area, which receives irrigation water from the Mahaweli scheme.

Two Divisional Secretariat Divisions (DSDs), viz. Yatinuwara (mid country wet zone) and Kundasale (mid country intermediate zone) were selected as they are representative of the two agro-climatic zones and also because accurate meteorological data from these two locations were available in the Department of Agriculture. There are 95 Grama Niladhari divisions (GNDs) (lowest level administrative units in the country) in Yatinuwara DSD, which covers a land area of 70km². The corresponding numbers for the Kundasale is 80 GNDs and 86km² respectively. Altitudes of these two DSDs vary between 500-600m and 420-780m for Yatinuwara and Kundasale respectively. The extent of paddy lands in Yatinuwara and Kundasale Divisional Secretariats divisions were approximately 1600ha and 1061ha respectively [59].

B. Collection of Primary Data

A sample of 64 farmers (32 from each DSD) was selected using multistage sampling method for the questionnaire survey. The main variables measured included demographic variables of the respondents such as age, education, and income, and the perception, knowledge and attitudes on climate change causes and the effects on paddy cultivation, and the level of adaptation of appropriate technology. Primary data were collected through interview schedules by conducting a social survey.

The main secondary data collected were the daily rainfall data and monthly mean maximum and mean minimum temperature data from 1977 to 2010. Data recorded at the meteorological stations at the School of Agriculture, Kundasale (for Kundasale DSD) and Horticultural Research and Development Institute, Gannoruwa (for Yatinuwara DSD) were collected from the Natural Resource Management Centre, of the Department of Agriculture in Sri Lanka.

C. Data Analysis

Data was analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel software package. Statistics tests such as correlation (Spearman's rho) and independent T tests were used to analyze data. In analyzing the daily rainfall data, the onset and the withdrawal were determined based on the methodology proposed by Punyawardena, [12]. Accordingly, the onset of rainfall was defined as a spell of at least 30mm per week in three consecutive weeks after pre-specified week for the *Maha* (Standard week 35) and *Yala* (South west monsoon season) (Standard week 9) seasons. If three weeks criterion is not satisfied, the condition was reduced up to two consecutive weeks with rainfall equal to or greater than 30mm. Similarly, the first occurrence a long dry spell two consecutive weeks with less than 30mm of rainfall after a pre – specified week for *Maha* (Standard week 50) and *Yala* seasons (Standard week 16) was defined as the end of the season. Length of the season was taken as the number of weeks between the onset of the season and onset of the season.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

All the respondents were involved with paddy farming, 87.5% among them were heads of the households and 9.4% were spouses of the household head. There were 28.1% & 37.5% household heads involved in fulltime paddy cultivation from Yatinuwara and Kundasale respectively.

1.Age Distribution

The mean age of the respondents was 57 years. There were 53% and 44% respondents aged 60 years or over in Yatinuwara and Kundasale respectively. These proportions are significantly higher than the national average of the working population (14.6%) and it indicates that younger generation is moving away from paddy farming [60].

More than 90% of the respondents have been living in the corresponding areas for 30 or more years in both DSDs. Majority (90%) of the respondents, had farming experience of 20 years or more in Kundasale, while the corresponding value for Yatinuwara was 78%.

2.Education Level

The majority (75%) of the respondents from Yatinuwara had had education up to G.C.E. (Ordinary Level) or higher while the corresponding value for Kundasale was 58%. The Yatinuwara is a semi-urban area located in close proximity to the Kandy city where there is better access to schools and higher education institutes compared to Kundasale, which is located about 15km away from the urban center.

3. Income

Average income of a household head in Yatinuwara was LKR 14,780 and it was LKR 16,760 in Kundasale. The possible reason might be the more commercialized farming system in Kundasale characterized by the cultivation in both *Maha* and *Yala* seasons compared to predominant subsistent paddy farming system with low income non-farming activities prevailing in Yatinuwara.

B. Climate Change of the Study Area

The mean temperature of Yatinuwara was below that of Kundasale in 1970s. However, it has increased gradually and had gone slightly higher than that of Kundasale within last 10-15 years. Yatinuwara is also getting higher rainfall than the Kundasale.

The change of temperature during the last 33year period showed that both mean annual maximum and minimum temperature data have shown increasing trends in Yatinuwara. However, there was no significant changing trend in the mean annual maximum temperature in Kundasale, (Fig. 1).

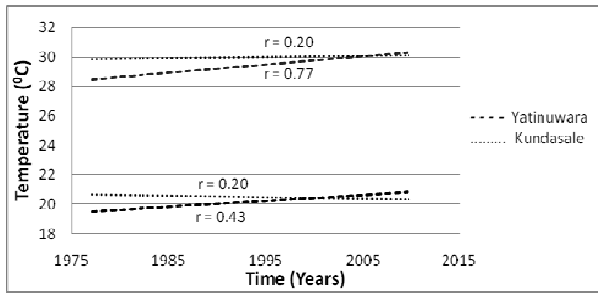


Fig. 1 Trend lines of change in mean annual maximum and minimum air temperatures during 1977 - 2010

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF CHANGE IN ANNUAL RAINFALL AND RAINY DAYS DURING 1977-2010

Climatic parameter	DSD*	Max	Min	Mean	SD	Liner trend	r value
No. of annual rainy days	Y	181.0	72.0	151.3	23.9	+0.599	0.29
	K	160.0	84.0	137.4	15.4	+0.641	0.45
Annual rainfall mm.	Y	2842.2	1242.8	1961.3	352.8	+4.683	0.15
	K	1818.8	959.9	1440.3	207.5	+2.952	0.15

* Y= Yatinuwara K = Kundasale

The onset of *Maha* rains (North-east monsoon) has shown almost no change in Kundasale, while a slight advancing trend (early onset) in Yatinuwara (Table II). However, the onset of *Yala* rains (South-west monsoon) has shown a delaying trend (late onset) in both locations. The duration of *Maha* rains has shown increasing trend in both DSDs, while duration of *Yala* rains had shown no change in Yatinuwara, but a decreasing trend in Kundasale (Table II).

The meteorological data only on the onset of *Yala* rains in both Yatinuwara ($r = 0.33$) and Kundasale ($r = 0.32$) showed

at least a weak fit of data to a liner trend line (Table II), while the other changes did not show a clear liner trend.

The total rainfall in *Maha* season has shown a slight increasing trend in both DSDs. However, in *Yala* season in Yatinuwara it has decreased significantly, while in Kundasale it has increased. Similar findings has been reported in a previous research undertaken in the mid country wet zone where there was a high variability in *Yala* compared to *Maha* with respect to the onset and withdrawal of rainfall observed during 1976-2008 [61].

TABLE II
SUMMARY OF CHANGE IN MAHA AND YALA RAINS DURING 1976-2010

Climatic parameter	DSD	Max	Min	Mean	SD	Linear trend	r value
Onset of <i>Maha</i> rains (Standard weeks)	Y	47.0	36.0	39.6	2.6	-0.049	-0.19
	K	46.0	36.0	40.0	3.0	+0.019	0.06
Duration of <i>Maha</i> rains (No. of weeks)	Y	19.0	8.0	13.0	2.7	+0.051	0.19
	K	20.0	7.0	12.9	3.0	+0.062	0.23
Rainfall in <i>Maha</i> (mm)	Y	1284.9	363.9	792.7	218.1	+1.793	0.08
	K	1183.8	331.8	654.5	207.3	+1.170	0.06
Onset of <i>Yala</i> rains (Standard weeks)	Y	24.0	10.0	15.3	3.5	+0.115	0.33
	K	22.0	10.0	15.2	3.2	+0.095	0.32
Duration of <i>Yala</i> rains (No. of weeks)	Y	22.0	6.0	12.4	3.7	-	< 0.00
	K	18.0	6.0	9.8	2.9	+0.052	0.19
Rainfall in <i>Yala</i> (mm)	Y	1267.6	260.7	620.5	220.9	-0.689	-0.03
	K	620.8	141.6	343.9	131.0	+0.328	0.00

C. Comparison of Perception of Respondents with Meteorological Data

Majority of the respondents have perceived a climate change as a whole in both Yatinuwara (81%) and Kundasale (84%). Majority of the respondents in both Yatinuwara (81%) and Kundasale (75%) also have indicated that the climate has become less predictable in recent years.

1. Perceived Time Duration for the Changes in the Climate

Perceived time duration of the respondents, who have perceived any kind of change (*i.e.* increased, decreased or changed irregularly) in climatic parameters are shown in Table III.

TABLE III
PERCEIVED TIME DURATIONS FOR THE CHANGES IN THE CLIMATE

Climatic parameter	DSD	Percentage of respondents		
		During last 5 years	During last 10 years	more than 10 years
Annual day temperature	Y	53.8	26.9	11.5
	K	41.4	20.7	37.9
Annual night temperature	Y	36.8	31.6	15.8
	K	40.9	18.2	31.8
Annual rainy days	Y	55.6	14.8	14.8
	K	35.7	17.9	32.1
Annual rainfall	Y	55.0	30.0	0.0
	K	38.9	16.7	44.4

It is clear that farmers in both DSDs have perceived the changes (*i.e.* increasing) in temperatures as a recent phenomenon occurred during last five years. But, with regards to the rainfall, Farmers in Kundasale have perceived changes in climate for a long time. In contrast, Majority of the farmers in Yatinuwara have perceived the changes corresponding to the data for the last five years. More farming experience of farmers in Kundasale than the farmers in Yatinuwara may be one of reasons for this difference. Also, as a semi dry area, which is receiving low and irregular rainfall with water scarcity, farmers of Kundasale may have been more sensitive adverse climatic conditions or impacts for relatively a longer time.

2.Comparison of Perception of Temperature with Meteorological Data

Perception of the majority of the respondents in both locations has been that the day temperature (maximum day temperature) has increased (Table IV). This perception is better reflected with the actual short-term changes shown in Fig. 2 than the long term changes (Fig. 1).

TABLE IV
SUMMARY OF THE PERCEPTION OF DAY AND NIGHT TEMPERATURES

Climatic parameter	DSD	Percentage of Respondents			
		Increase	Decrease	Changed Irregularly	Not changed
Annual day temperature	Y	59.4	18.5	3.1	9.4
	K	78.1	0.0	12.5	9.4
Annual night temperature	Y	37.5	12.5	9.4	25.0
	K	43.8	9.4	15.6	18.8

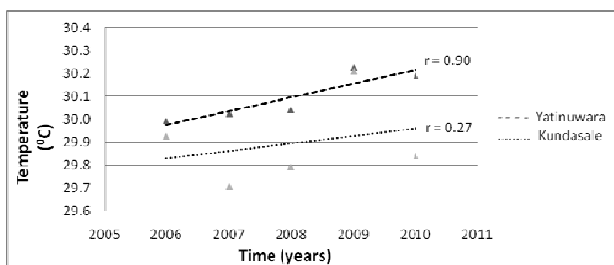


Fig. 2 Trend of change in mean annual maximum air temperatures during 2006 -2010

The majority had not perceived an increase in the night temperature (minimum day temperature). This is reflected more clearly in Yatinuwara with the actual changes of short-term minimum temperature changes as shown in Fig. 3.

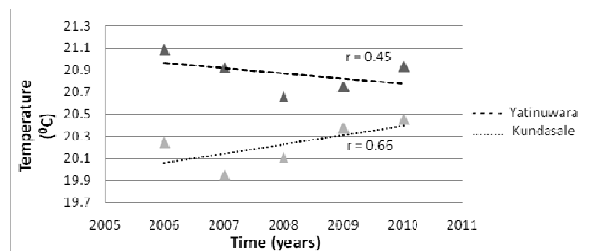


Fig. 3 Trend of change in mean annual minimum air temperatures during 2006 – 2010

3. Comparison of Perception of Annual Rainfall and Rainy Days with Corresponding Meteorological Data

TABLE V
SUMMARY OF PERCEPTION OF THE ANNUAL RAINFALL AND RAINY DAYS

Climatic parameter	DS	Percentage of Respondents			
		Increased	Decreased	Changed Irregularly	Not changed
Annual rainy days	Y	59.4	21.9	3.1	3.1
	K	3.1	78.1	6.3	9.4
Annual rainfall	Y	28.1	34.4	0.0	18.8
	K	3.1	53.1	0.0	12.5

Perception of annual rainy days by the majority in Yatinuwara (Table V.) is in line with the meteorological data for past five years (Fig. 4), which showed a strong fit of data to a increasing liner trend line ($r = 0.71$, $p = 0.18$). Corresponding data for Kundasale showed no significant increase ($r = 0.06$, $p = 0.93$), contrasting to the majority (78.1%) of the farmers' perception of a decrease.

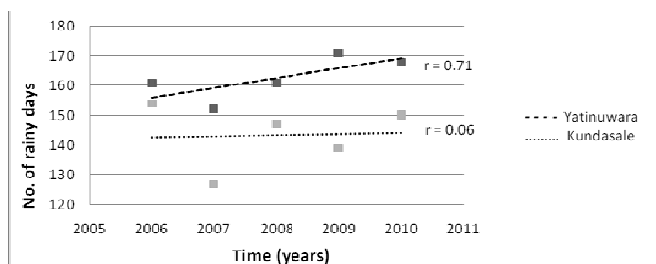


Fig. 4 Trend of change in annual rainy days during 2006 – 2010

D. Perceived Impacts form the Changes in the Climate

The respondents in Yatinuwara had found no significant impact so far from the increased temperature. However, in Kundasale, 39% of the respondents have indicated that they find an increasing scarcity of irrigation water. The changing rainy days has been perceived to create grain sterility (22.7%) and water scarcity (33.3%) by Yatinuwara and Kundasale farmers respectively. The changes in the onset of rains have been perceived to cause disturbances to timely farm operations by 20.0% and 38.9% of famers in Yatinuwara and Kundasale respectively.

E. Perception of the Extreme Weather Events

TABLE VI
PERCEPTION OF THE EXTREME WEATHER EVENTS

Climatic parameter	DSD	Percentage of Respondents			
		Increase	Decreased	Changed Irregularly	Not changed
Frequency of droughts	Y	16	53	0	28
	K	50	12	0	34
Frequency of floods	Y	34	37	6	22
	K	6	12	6	75

Since there were less incidents of flood in Kundasale, the majority have perceived no change in it (Table VI).

Majority of the respondents have perceived an increase in pests (89.1%), diseases (76.6%) and weeds (81.3%) in their paddy fields. Respondents who have perceived an increase in pests mentioned that rats (70.2%), wild boar (54.4) and Leaf rolling caterpillar (22.8%) as the major pests that cause increased crop damage. *Echinichloa glabrescens* (Bajiri) (55.8%) and *Fimbristylis miliacea* (Kudametta) (17.3%) were the major weeds observed to have been increased.

F. Paddy Farmers Knowledge and Attitudes on Climate Change

1. Knowledge on Adaptation Strategies of Climate Change

The respondents mostly believed that the causes for climate change as the destruction of forests (39.1%) and constructions of houses, buildings, infrastructure etc. (15.6%). The subsistent farmers are mostly interacting with the nature and they consider themselves and plant kingdom as inseparable parts the weather/climate as interrelated components of the nature therefore, they simply attributed the changes in climate to the destruction of the natural forest biomass which is also having links with weather cycle, even thought they could not explain the scientific intricacies of the relationships.

Knowledge on adaptation strategies to the climate change was measured using seven statements and the weighted score given for the knowledge on adaptation strategies to the climate change was ranged from -10.5 to 10.5. Weights given are shown in Table VII.

TABLE VII
WEIGHTS GIVEN FOR KNOWLEDGE ON DIFFERENT ADAPTATION STRATEGIES

Knowledge component	Weight	Range	Weighted Score
Changing the planting time	2	- / + 2	-4 / +4
Crop rotation	0.5	- / + 2	-1 / +1
Crop diversification	0.25	- / + 2	-0.5 / +0.5
Rain water harvesting	0.5	- / + 2	-1 / +1
Soil moisture conservation	1.5	- / + 2	-3 / +3
Availability of drought resistant varieties	0.5	- / + 1	-0.5 / +0.5
Availability of flood resistant varieties	0.5	- / + 1	-0.5 / +0.5

The mean score for the knowledge on adaptation strategies to climate change of the whole sample was +2.8, which is indicating a positive knowledge on climate change. However, the mean knowledge score of farmers in Kundasale (+4.3) was

significantly higher than the mean of Yatinuwara (+0.7) ($t = -2.678$, Sig. = 0.010).

2. Attitudes on Climate Change

Attitudes of respondents on climate change were measured under three categories as attitude on anthropogenic causes, attitude on severity of impacts and the attitude on Need for adaptation. Each of these components were measured by three statements in the Likert scale and the score given for each component ranged from -6 (-2 x 3) to +6 (2 x 3). A composite scale by averaging three attitude components was developed to measure overall attitudes on climate change.

The mean attitude of the whole sample on anthropogenic causes of climate change was negative (-1.1) suggesting that the majority have not been adequately informed about the real causal agents of climate change. The widely held belief among some farmers that the climate is natural phenomena and it is beyond the influence of human beings, and the lack of knowledge of farmers about the contribution of paddy cultivation for the CO₂ emissions might be possible reasons for this negative attitude. The mean attitude on severity of impacts of climate however, was highly positive (+3.9) since the farmers of the both DSDs have experienced the negative impacts of bad weather in recent years. The mean attitude on the need for adaptation to the climate change also was positive (+2.1). The overall attitude score of farmers in Kundasale (+2.1) was significantly higher than that of Yatinuwara (+1.1) ($t = -2.46$, Sig. = 0.018). This could be mainly due to the fact that the majority of the Yatinuwara farmers were part-time farmers who were less sensitive to the changes in farming circumstances.

G. Adopting of Adaptation Strategies to the Climate Change Impacts

Farmers in both DSDs were using strategies (Table VIII) that enhance their ability to face the impacts of climate change. Crop rotation is regularly done by the farmers in Kundasale, where the water is often inadequate for paddy cultivation in *Yala* season. Diversification into other crops is done to a lower extent in both DSDs. Rainwater conservation is only practiced in Kundasale as small tanks and *pathaha* (in-situ water harvesting structures) which are located in the upper part of the paddy field area (*Yaya*). Soil moisture conservation is done mainly through applying straw to the paddy field and the main incentives behind this are to add nutrients to the soil and also to receive government fertilizer subsidy. However, the practice of the adding straw to the paddy field has recently decreased since it is believed to be enhancing the spread of leptospirosis (rat fever).

TABLE VIII
LEVEL OF ADOPTION OF MAJOR ADAPTATION STRATEGIES

PERCENTAGE OF ADOPTION OF VARIOUS ADAPTATION STRATEGIES				
Adaptation strategy		Percentage of respondents		
		Yatinuwara	Kundasale	Overall
Changing the paddy variety		87.5	100	93.75
Changing the planting time		21.9	65.6	43.75
Crop rotation		12.5	87.5	50
Crop diversification in <i>Yala</i> season		12.5	21.9	17.2
Water conservation	Rain water harvesting	0	21.9	10.95
	Soil moisture conservation	34.4	59.4	46.9

Considerable (44%) percentage of the respondents indicated that they change the planting time according to the changes in the rainfall. This finding is comparable to the home gardening research undertaken in Sri Lanka, India and Bangladesh [54]. Majority (88%) of the respondents are practicing crop rotation in *Yala* season in Kundasale, similar to the findings of previous research undertaken in the dry zone where the farmers have shown a tendency to switch over to *Chena* (shifting) cultivation, instead of paddy due to uncertain pattern of rainfall, particularly the *Yala* season [56].

The overall of level of adaptation was estimated by a composite index developed according to level adaptation by each respondent and score given ranged from 0 to + 20. Each respondent was categorized into three levels as low, medium and high by using half standard deviation method. The mean score for the level of adoption of adaptation strategies to the climate change of the whole sample was medium (9.5). The level of using of adaptation strategies of farmers in Kundasale (mean = 12.3) was significantly higher than that of Yatinuwara (mean = 6.7) ($t = -4.29$, Sig. (2-tailed) = 0.000).

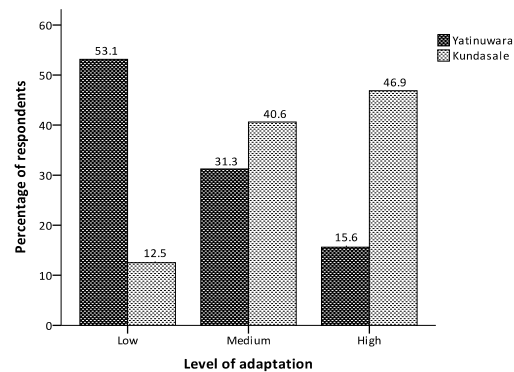


Fig. 5 Overall level of adoption of Adaptive main strategies

The low level adaptation in Yatinuwara could be due to their low level of engagement with farming as many of them were part-time farmers.

Majority of the respondents (87.5%) in Kundasale had medium to high level of using adaptation strategies to climate change impacts (Fig. 5) and this results also fall closely to the findings of the dry zone home gardening research referred earlier where the respondents changed planting dates of crops, introduced new technologies or either changed agronomic activities or used soil and water conservation measures in home gardens [54]. The overall level of adoption of adaptation strategies by the farmers was medium. However, this level of adaptation is higher than that of similar studies that has conducted in Nepal [47] and South Africa [46].

H. The Interrelationships between Independent and Dependent Variables

The level of adoption of adaptation strategies by the farmers were strongly correlated with their knowledge ($r^2 = 0.498$, $p = .000$) and attitudes ($r^2 = 0.316$, $p = .021$).

TABLE IX
ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN SOCIO-ECONOMICAL VARIABLES WITH KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES AND LEVEL OF ADAPTATION

Independent variable	Dependent variables					
	Overall Attitude on climate change		Knowledge on climate change adaptation		Level of climate change adaptation	
	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.
Age	- 0.252	0.069	- 0.067	0.633	- 0.108	0.398
Education	0.355**	0.009	0.012	0.935	- 0.045	0.722
Income ¹	0.461**	0.001	0.115	0.413	- 0.018	0.889
Period of settlement	- 0.107	0.445	0.029	0.834	0.029	0.819
Farming experience	- 0.055	0.694	- 0.123	0.380	0.051	0.690

** Significant at the 0.01 level

¹ Income of the head of the household

The education level and the income of the heads of the households showed a significant positive correlation with the overall attitudes (Table IX). Education level of the respondents also had a significant positive correlation with the income of the head of the household, thus showing that the farmers with good education and income have a higher adaptive capacity.

There was a negative relationship (significant at the 0.10 level) between the age of the respondents and the attitude on adaptation to the climate change. The novelty of the climate

change phenomenon, the less faith on agriculture extension officers' opinions, the resistance to change established farming practices, and the sense of fatalism could be the possible reasons for the older respondents to have more negative attitude of climate change adaptation.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusions

The various research studies referred in this study have confirmed the unprecedented changes of the climate and its impacts to crop farming in the tropics. The findings of the empirical investigations of this study also confirmed that temperature and rainfall patterns of the locations studied have changed over time. The mean annual maximum temperature in Yatinuwara showed a stronger linear increasing trend. Both the number of rainy days and the rainfall have shown increasing trends in both Yatinuwara and Kundasale. The onset of Yala rains in both Yatinuwara and Kundasale has also been changing over time.

The farmers' perceptions were compared with the meteorological data and possible reasons for discrepancies were identified. The comparison showed that the farmers' perceptions were more in line with the short-term actual changes. Farmers' perception of day temperature in both DSDs are in line with the corresponding meteorological data while, only the perception of farmers in Kundasale on night temperature was in line with the corresponding meteorological data. Only the perception of annual rainy days by the farmers of Yatinuwara was in line with the corresponding meteorological data. However, the perception of the majority of the farmers in both DSDs on annual rainfall was wrong.

The differential perception by the farmers of this study, as well as in various other studies quoted, show clearly the difficulty faced by the farmers to properly comprehend the changing trends of the climate. In most cases the rural farmers seemed to have had no organizational support system of getting the local weather data and forecasts in away to help them make appropriate farming decisions. The gradual deterioration of the close sensitivity that the traditional farmers maintained with their natural environment is also apparent, when the farmers' knowledge of adaptation strategies, overall attitudes, and the level of adoption of adaptation strategies to the climate change were assessed.

The knowledge on adaptation strategies to the climate change, overall attitudes on climate change and the adoption of adaptation strategies among Kundasale farmers were significantly higher than those of Yatinuwara. However, the attitude on anthropogenic causes of climate change was slightly negative.

The overall use of the adaptation strategies for the climate change impacts was medium among the respondents. A majority of the respondents are changing the paddy cultivar/variety that they cultivate. Changing the planting time and soil moisture conservation were medium among the respondents, while very low percentage of respondents were adopting rain water harvesting strategies.

B. Recommendations

In the context of sustainable development of developing countries such as Sri Lanka, climate change adaptation should be conceived more as a process of transformation, which encompasses not only the bio-physical and technological

systems, but also the social value system, legislative and bureaucratic adjustments together with financial institutions to facilitate the community level changes [62].

Increasing the resilience and reducing the vulnerability to the ever-increasing challenges of climate change is an unprecedented challenge faced by all stakeholders and particularly those involved in the paddy sector. The policy makers have acknowledged the importance of climate change adaptation by being among the first few countries to ratify the UNFCCC. However, this study shows that the grass root level scenario provides little evidence that paddy farming communities are ready to manage the ground realities of climate change. According to IPCC [32], vulnerability is a function of the character, magnitude, and rate of climate change and variation to which a system is exposed, its sensitivity, and its adaptive capacity. The growing evidence suggests that too often adaptation is imagined purely in a technological domain. This study too has basically looked into the technical aspects of climate change with little insight to socio-psychological issues. More in-depth studies are therefore required to understand the adaptive capacity of different farming communities.

In order to make informed decisions on changing farming systems a further in-depth analysis of meteorological data is recommended to figure out the current status of climate change and also to be able to predict the future trends in different climatic zones of Sri Lanka. It is encouraging to see that the farmers are beginning to take the climate change seriously. Yet the present level of awareness and adaptations are highly inadequate. Therefore, it is also recommended to develop and implement strategies to communicate the past trends and the predictions of climate change correctly to the farmers and other stakeholders enabling them to make more accurate decisions.

It is essential to formulate communication strategies and conduct climate smart-extension and training programs to increase awareness, change attitudes and, motivate farmers towards important adaptation strategies, especially the promising technologies that have slow diffusion rates. There could be many other factors and attributes of the farmers affecting as incentives or barriers for changing behavior of farming communities, and hence, it is recommended to study them further in relation to different farming circumstances and use their cause and effect relationships in developing adaptation strategies.

The sustainable development of agricultural sector could only be achieved by integrating climate change adaptation into national development policies and ensure that they are implemented at national, regional and local levels [63]. Therefore, timely need of an integrated and collaborative approach involving state, private sector, civil society and farmer-based organizations to make the Sri Lankan agriculture 'climate-smart' cannot be overemphasized.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors gratefully acknowledge the Department Agriculture of the Government of Sri Lanka for granting

permission to use the meteorological data and, the support and encouragement extended by Dr. B.V.R. Punyawardena and Mr. Ranga Pallawala, and especially, the members of the farming communities involved in the case study.

REFERENCES

- [1] IPCC. (2013). Summary for Policymakers. In: *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* [Stocker, T.F., D. Qin, G.-K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S.K. Allen, J. Boschung, A. Nauels, Y. Xia, V. Bex and P.M. Midgley (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- [2] CGIAR (2009). Climate, agriculture and food security: A strategy for change, Alliance of CGIAR Centers.
- [3] Cruz, R.V., H. Harasawa, M. Lal, S. Wu, Y. Anokhin, B. Punsalmaa, Y. Honda, M. Jafari, C. Li and N. HuuNinh, (2007), Asia. Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. In M.L. Parry, O.F. Canziani, J.P. Palutikof, P.J. van der Linden and C.E. Hanson, Eds., *Contribution of Working Group II to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 469-506.
- [4] Easterling, W.E., Aggarwal, P.K., Batima, P., Brander, K.M., Erda, L., Howden, S.M., Kirilenko, A., Morton, J., Soussana, J.F., Schmidhuber J., and Tubiello, F.N. (2007). Food, fibre and forest products. Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. In Parry, M.L., Canziani, O.F., Palutikof, J.P., van der Linden P.J., and Hanson, C.E. (Eds.), *Contribution of Working Group II to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 273-313.
- [5] Baba, N. (2010). Sinking the Pearl of the Indian Ocean: Climate Change in Sri Lanka. *Global Majority E-Journal*, 1(1): pp. 4-16.
- [6] South Asia Watch on Trade, Economics and Environment (SAWTEE) (2013) Managing Climate Change, Water resources, and Food security in South Asia, 6th SAES theme paper, Retrieved from: http://www.ips.lk/saes2013/images/saes_images/concept/6th_saes_theme_aper_cpd_plenary_2.pdf
- [7] Weerakoon, W.M.W., Abeywickrama, T., de Costa, W.A.J.M., Maruyama, A. (2010) *Out-crossing of Heat Stress Affected Spikelets of Lowland Rice in the Sub-humid Zone of Sri Lanka and Its Long-term Implications*. www.niaes.affrc.go.jp/marco. Accessed 01th of October, 2011.
- [8] Climate Change Secretariat, Ministry of Environment, Sri Lanka. (2010). Public Perceptions of Climate Change in Sri Lanka. ADB Technical Assistance Project on Strengthening Capacity for Climate Change Adaptation. www.climatechange.lk. Accessed on 01th of October, 2011.
- [9] Global Science Conference on Climate-Smart Agriculture (2011) Institutions to support the adoption of climate-smart agriculture. Retrieved from: http://www.gscsa2011.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=LopBV_fVUJA%3D&tabid=3352
- [10] Byrne, R., Smith, A., Watson, J., & Ockwell, D. (2011). Energy pathways in low-carbon development: From technology transfer to socio-technical transformation, STEPS Working Paper 46, Brighton STEPS Centre.
- [11] Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (2010). *"Climate-smart" agriculture: Policies, practices and financing for food security, adaptation and mitigation*. Rome, Communication Division, 00153 Italy.
- [12] Punyawardena, B.V.R. (2002). Identification of the potential of growing seasons by the onset of seasonal rains: A study in the DL₁ region of the North Central dry zone. *Journal of National Science Foundation Sri Lanka*. 30(1&2): 13-21.
- [13] De Costa, W.A.J.M. (2008). Climate Change in Sri Lanka: myth or reality? Evidence from long-term meteorological data. *Journal of National Science Foundation Sri Lanka* 36 Special Issue: 63-88.
- [14] Chandrapala, L. (1996 b). Long term trends of rainfall and temperature in Sri Lanka. In: Abrol, Y. P.; Gadgil, S.; Pant, G. B. (eds.). *Climate Variability and Agriculture*, New Delhi, India: Narosa Publishing House. Pp 153-162.
- [15] Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). (2007 a). Fourth assessment report. Climate change 2007:: The Physical Science Basis. In Solomon, S., D. Qin, M. Manning, Z. Chen, M. Marquis, K.B. Averyt, M. Tignor and H.L. Miller (eds.). *Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- [16] Basnayake, B. R. S. B.; Fernando, T. K.; Vithanage, J. C. (2002). Variation of air temperature and rainfall during Yala and Maha agricultural seasons. *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Session of Sri Lanka Association for the Advancement of Science (SLASS)*. Section E1. pp 212.
- [17] Zubair, L.; Hansen, J.; Chandimala, J.; Siraj, M. R. A.; Siriwardhana, M.; Ariyaratne, K.; Bandara, I.; Bulathsinghala, H.; Abeyratne, T.; Samuel, T. D. M. A. (2005). *Current climate and Climate Change assessments for coconut and tea plantations in Sri Lanka*. IRI, FECT, NRMS and UoP Contribution to AS12 Project Report to be submitted to START, Washington, DC., USA.
- [18] Chandrapala, L. (1996 a). Calculation of areal precipitation of Sri Lanka on district basis using Voronoi Tessellation Method. *Proceedings of National Symposium on Climate Change*, Central Environmental Authority, Colombo, Sri Lanka. March 7-8, 1996.
- [19] Jayatilake, H. M.; Chandrapala, L.; Basnayake, B. R. S. B.; Dharmaratne, G. H. P. (2005). Water resources and Climate Change. In *Proceedings of Workshop on Sri Lanka National Water Development Report*. Paris, France: World Water Assessment Programme (WWAP).
- [20] Senalankadhikara, S., Manawadu, L. (2009). Rainfall Fluctuation and Changing Patterns of Agriculture Practices. pp. 127- 139. In: Evans, A.; Jinapala, K. (Eds.). *Proceedings of the National Conference on Water, Food Security and Climate Change in Sri Lanka*, BMICH, Colombo, Sri Lanka, 9-11 June 2009. Vol. 2: Water quality, environment and climate change. Colombo, Sri Lanka: International Water Management Institute. 186p.
- [21] Ratnayake, U.; Herath, G. (2005). Changes in water cycle: effect on natural disasters and ecosystems. In Wijesekera, N. T. S.; Imbulana, K. A. U. S.; Neupane, B. *Proceedings of Workshop on Sri Lanka National Water Development Report*, (Eds.) World Water Assessment Programme. Paris, France.
- [22] Imbulana, K. A. U. S.; Wijesekera, N. T. S.; Neupane, B. R. eds. (2006). Sri Lanka National Water Development Report. MAI&MD, UN- WWAP, UNESCO and University of Moratuwa, Sri Lanka, Paris and New Delhi.
- [23] Eriyagama, N.; Smakhtin, V.; Chandrapala, L.; Fernando, K. 2010. Impacts of Climate Change on water resources and agriculture in Sri Lanka: a review and preliminary vulnerability mapping. Colombo, Sri Lanka: International Water Management Institute. 51p.
- [24] Weerakoon, W.M.W., Maruyama, A. & Ohba, K. (2008). Impact of humidity on temperature-induced grain sterility, in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science* 194, 135-140.
- [25] Peng, S., Huang, J., Sheehy, J.E., Laza, R.C., Visperas, R.M. Zhong, X., Centeno, G.S., Khush, G.S., Cassman, K.G. (2004). Rice yields decline with higher night temperature from global warming. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA* 101:27 (July 6, 2004), pp. 9971-9975.
- [26] Kim, H.Y., Lieffering, M., Miura, S., Kobayashi, K., Okada, M. (2001). Growth and nitrogen uptake of CO₂-enriched rice under field conditions. *New Phytologist* 150: 223-229.
- [27] Ziska, L.H., Namuco, O., Moya, T., Quilang, J. (1997). Growth and Yield Response of Field-Grown Tropical Rice to Increasing Carbon Dioxide and Air Temperature. *Agron. J.* 89:45-53.
- [28] De Costa, W.A.J.M., Weerakoon, W.M.W., Herath, H.M.L.K., Amaratunga, K.S.P., Abeywardena, R.M.I. (2006). Physiology of yield determination of rice under elevated carbon dioxide at high temperatures in a sub humid tropical climate. *Field Crops Research*. 96(2-3):336-347.
- [29] De Costa, W. A. J. M., Weerakoon, W. M. W., Abeywardena, R. M. I., Herath, H. M. L. K. (2003). Response of Photosynthesis and Water Relations of Rice (*Oryza sativa*) to Elevated Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide in the Subhumid Zone of Sri Lanka. *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science* 189(2): 71-82.
- [30] Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), (2007c). Climate Change 2007: Mitigation of Climate Change. In B. Metz, O.R. Davidson, P.R. Bosch, R. Dave, L.A. Meyer (Eds), *Contribution of Working Group III to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- [31] Kale, G.D. (2013) A Modified Combined Approach Framework of Climate Impact and Adaptation Assessment for Water Resource Systems

- Based on Experience Derived from Different Adaptation Studies in the Context of Climate Change, *Journal of Water Resource and Protection*, Vol. 5 No. 12, 2013, pp. 1210-1218. doi: 10.4236/jwarp.2013.512129.
- [32] Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). (2007b). Fourth assessment report. Climate change 2007: Impacts, adaptations, and vulnerability. In M.L. Parry, O.F. Canziani, J.P. Palutikof, P.J. van der Linden, & C.E. Hanson (Eds.), *Contribution of working group II to the fourth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [33] Turrall, H., Burke, J. and Faurès, J. (2011) Climate Change, water and food security, *FAO WATER REPORTS*, 36, FAO Land and Water Division
- [34] Redfern, S.K., Azzu, N. and Binamira, J.S. (2012) Rice in Southeast Asia: facing risks and vulnerabilities to respond to Climate Change, in Alexandre Meybeck, Jussi Lankoski, Suzanne Redfern, Nadine Azzu and Vincent Gitz (Eds) *Building resilience for adaptation to Climate Change in the agriculture sector*, Proceedings of a Joint FAO/OECD Workshop, 23–24 April, 2012.
- [35] De Silva, C. S. (2006). Impacts of Climate Change on water resources in Sri Lanka. Paper presented at the 32nd WEDC International Conference, November 13-17, 2006, Colombo, Sri Lanka.
- [36] Senaratne, A. & Scarborough, H. (2011) Coping with Climatic Variability by Rain-fed Farmers in Dry Zone, Sri Lanka: Towards Understanding Adaptation to Climate Change, *Australian Agricultural and Resource Economics Society (AARES)*, 55th Annual National Conference, 8-11 February 2011, Melbourne, Victoria
- [37] De Silva, C. S.; Weatherhead, E. K.; Knox, J. W.; Rodriguez-Diaz, J. A. (2007). Predicting the impacts of Climate Change – a case study of paddy irrigation water requirements in Sri Lanka. *Agricultural Water management* 93(2007): 19-29.
- [38] American Psychological Association (2009). Psychology and global climate change: Addressing a multi-faceted phenomenon and set of challenges. A report by the Task Force on the Interface between Psychology and Global Climate Change. Washington, DC: APA. pp.6.
- [39] Carvalho, A. (2007). Ideological cultures and media discourses on scientific knowledge. Re-reading news on climate change. *Public Understanding of Science* 16 (2), 223-43.
- [40] Boykoff, M.T. and Boykoff, J.M. (2004). Balance as bias: global warming and the US prestige press. *Global Environmental Change*, 14, 125-136.
- [41] Billett, S. (2010). Dividing climate change: global warming in the Indian mass media, *Climatic Change* 99: 1-16.
- [42] Shanahan, M. (2009). Time to adapt? Media coverage of climate change in non-industrialized countries, In Boyce, T. & Lewis, J. (Eds.), *Climate Change and the Media* (145-157). New York: Peter Lang Publishing Inc.
- [43] Tolan, S. (2007). Coverage of Climate Change in Chinese Media, UNDP, Human Development Report Office. Occasional Paper 2007/38.
- [44] Yale Project on Climate Change Communication (2006) Public climate change awareness and climate change communication in China, <http://environment.yale.edu/climate-communication/files/2sided-highlights-China-e.pdf>
- [45] Leiserowitz Anthony (2007) International Public Opinion, Perception, And Understanding of Global Climate, Available: environment.yale.edu/climate
- [46] Gbetibouo, G. A. (2009). Understanding Farmers' Perceptions and Adaptations to Climate Change and Variability: The Case of the Limpopo Basin, South Africa, IFPRI Discussion Paper, International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, DC: 28.
- [47] Bhusal, Y.R. (2009). Local Peoples' Perceptions on Climate Change, Its Impacts and Adaptation Measures in Mid-Mountain Region of Nepal (A Case study from Kaski District) Forestry Research Thesis Submitted to Tribhubhan University, Institute of Forestry, Pokhara, Nepal, 19.
- [48] Piya, L., Maharjan, K.L. and Joshi, N.P. (2012). Perceptions and Realities of Climate Change among the Chepang Communities in Rural Mid-Hills of Nepal, *Journal of Contemporary India Studies: Space and Society*, Hiroshima University, Vol 2, 35 - 50
- [49] Chaudhary, P. and Bawa, K.S. (2011) Local perceptions of climate change validated by scientific evidence in the Himalayas, *Biol. Lett.* published online. 27 April 2011 doi: 10.1098/rsbl.2011.0269
- [50] Byg, A. & Salick, J. (2009) Local perspectives on a global phenomenon-Climate Change in eastern Tibetan villages. *Global Environmental Change* 19, 156 – 166. (doi:10.1016/j. gloenvcha.2009.01.010)
- [51] Apata T.G., Samuel, K.D. & Adeola A.O. (2009) Analysis of Climate Change Perception and Adaptation among Arable Food Crop Farmers in South Western Nigeria. <http://ageconsearch.umn.edu/bitstream/51365/2/final%20IAAE%20doc..pdf>
- [52] Vedwan, N. & Rhoades, R. E. 2001 Climate change in the Western Himalayas of India: a study of local perception and response. *Clim. Res.* 19, 109–117. (doi:10. 3354/cr019109)
- [53] Lund, J. F., K. Balooni, and L. Puri. 2010. Perception-based methods to evaluate conservation impact in forests managed through popular participation. *Ecology and Society* 15(3): 5. [online] URL: <http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol15/iss3/art5/>
- [54] Marambe, B., Weerahewa, J., Pushpakumara, G., Silva, P., Punyawardena, R., Premalal, S., Wijerathne, B., Miah, G., Rahman, S.M., and Roy, J., (2011). Vulnerability of Homegarden Systems to Climate Change and its Impacts on Food Security in South Asia, Asia-Pacific Network for Global Change Research, Retrieved from: <https://www.apn-gcr.org/.../3ddf57b875774091a38f95bdfce0b6c9.pdf>
- [55] Withanage, H., Liyanage, C., Pathragoda, D. (2009). Public perceptions on Climate Change and adaptation in Sri Lanka. Centre for Environmental Justice, Colombo, Sri Lanka. 6-11. Retrieved from: <http://www.elaw.org/system/files/Climate+Change.pdf>
- [56] Nianthi, K.W.G. R. and Mohapatra, A.C. (2009). Perceptions of the paddy communities towards Climate Change in the dry Zone of Sri Lanka, *Asian Journal of Environment and Disaster Management*. 1(2): 167-181.
- [57] Esham, M. & Garforth, C. (2012) Agricultural adaptation to Climate Change: insights from a farming community in Sri Lanka, *Mitig Adapt Strateg Glob Change*, DOI 10.1007/s11027-012-9374-6
- [58] Sterman, J.D. (2006) Learning from Evidence in a Complex World, *Am J Public Health*. 2006 March; 96(3): 505–514., doi: 10.2105/AJPH.2005.066043
- [59] Wallach, B. (2005) Continuity and change in the paddy lands of the Kandy district, *The Sri Lanka Journal of the Humanities* 1 (1&2) 2005
- [60] Central Bank of Sri Lanka (2013) Economic and Social Statistics of Sri Lanka 2013, Colombo, Sri Lanka.
- [61] Ayoni, V.D.N., Dharmasena, A.A.H.S.K. (2011) Effects of Onset, Length and Amount of Rainfall on the Cultivated Extent of Paddy in the Mid Country Wet Zone of Sri Lanka. Abstracts of the 1st National Conference, 10-11 Sept. 2009, Kandy, Sri Lanka. www.cdmstudycentre.org. Abstract accessed on 01th of October, 2011.
- [62] Pelling, M. (2011) *Adaptation to Climate Change: From resilience to transformation*, Routledge, London New York
- [63] Esham, M. & Garforth, C. (2013). Climate change and agricultural adaptation in Sri Lanka: a review, *Climate and Development*, 5:1, 66-76, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17565529.2012.762333>

Prof. Dr. Wanigasundera Appuhamillage Don Padmasiri Anigasundera (Wanige Wanigasundera), born in April, 1953, is a Sri Lanka attached to the Department of Agricultural Extension, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya, (His contacts: Tel: 0094 81 2395524, Mobile: 0094714430501 (Until May 2014 in Portugal: 00351910284267) Email: dpwanige@pdn.ac.lk, wanigasundera@gmail.com). He obtained his Bachelor of Science (Agriculture) Hons. Degree from University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka in 1977, and Doctor of Philosophy (Agric. Extension & Rural Development), from University of Reading, UK, in 1987. His Areas of Specialization include; Agricultural Extension and Rural Development, Communication and Media Use, and Developmental Journalism.

He is a member of the permanent faculty cadre and has twenty years of experience in university teaching, research, and outreach functions. (Nov 2009 - to-date - Professor, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka; Nov 1994 – Oct 2009 - Senior Lecturer, University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka). Prior to joining the Faculty he was engaged in extension and rural development work and served as the Head of Advisory Division of the Sri Lanka Tea Research Institute. He has competencies in project implementation, monitoring and evaluation of academic programs and rural development interventions and served as a consultant for several international organizations. He has strong working relationships with government departments, universities, rural producers, development agencies and private sector industries in Sri Lanka and South Asia. He has developed innovative interactive audio-visual development communication media, and has produced award winning video documentaries.

Prof. Wanigasundera also serves as the Chairperson, Board of Management of Sri Lanka Development Journalists Forum. He also was the former Chairman, Board of Study in Agricultural Extension, Postgraduate

Institute of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya, the Head, Department of Agricultural Extension, University of Peradeniya, and the Chairman of Sri Lanka Agricultural Extension Association. He is presently attached to the University of Minho, Portugal, as a Erasmus Mundus post doc research scholar working on climate change communication in the Institute of Social Sciences and Communication and Society Research Center of Minho University, Portugal (from Nov 2013 to May 2014).